

The Design of C: A Rational Reconstruction

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Goals of this Lecture



- Help you learn about:
 - The decisions that were available to the designers of C
 - The decisions that were made by the designers of C
 and thereby...
 - C!
- · Why?
 - Learning the design rationale of the C language provides a richer understanding of C itself
 - ... and might be more interesting than simply learning the language itself!
 - A power programmer knows both the programming language and its design rationale
- But first a preliminary topic...

Preliminary Topic



Number Systems

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Why Bits (Binary Digits)?



- Computers are built using digital circuits
 - · Inputs and outputs can have only two values
 - True (high voltage) or false (low voltage)
 - · Represented as 1 and 0
- Can represent many kinds of information
 - Boolean (true or false)
 - Numbers (23, 79, ...)
 - Characters ('a', 'z', ...)
 - · Pixels, sounds
 - Internet addresses
- Can manipulate in many ways
 - · Read and write
 - Logical operations
 - Arithmetic

Base 10 and Base 2



- Decimal (base 10)
 - Each digit represents a power of 10
 - 4173 = $4 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^2 + 7 \times 10^1 + 3 \times 10^0$
- Binary (base 2)
 - · Each bit represents a power of 2
 - 10110 = 1 x 2^4 + 0 x 2^3 + 1 x 2^2 + 1 x 2^1 + 0 x 2^0 = 22

Decimal to binary conversion:

Divide repeatedly by 2 and keep remainders

```
12/2 = 6   R = 0   6/2 = 3   R = 0   3/2 = 1   R = 1   1/2 = 0   R = 1   Result = 1100
```

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Writing Bits is Tedious for People



- Octal (base 8) easy to write using a 10-key keypad
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 7
- Hexadecimal (base 16) easier to manipulate
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

```
0000 = 0
             1000 = 8
                              Thus the 16-bit binary number
0001 = 1
             1001 = 9
0010 = 2
             1010 = A
                                  1011 0010 1010 1001
0011 = 3
             1011 = B
0100 = 4
            1100 = C
                                   converted to hex is
0101 = 5
             1101 = D
0110 = 6
           1110 = E
                                         B2A9
0111 = 7
            1111 = F
```

Representing Colors: RGB



- Three primary colors
 - Red
 - Green
 - Blue
- Intensity
 - 8-bit number for each color (e.g., two hex digits)
 - · So, 24 bits to specify a color
- In HTML, e.g. course "Schedule" Web page
 - Red: De-Comment Assignment Due
 - Blue: Reading Period
- Same thing in digital cameras
 - · Each pixel is a mixture of red, green, and blue

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Finite Representation of Integers

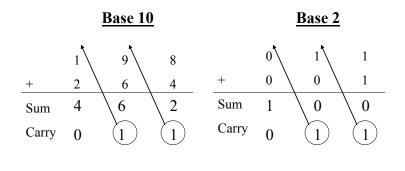


- Fixed number of bits in memory
 - Usually 8, 16, or 32 bits
 - (1, 2, or 4 bytes)
- Unsigned integer
 - · No sign bit
 - · Always 0 or a positive number
 - All arithmetic is modulo 2ⁿ
- Examples of unsigned integers
 - · 00000001 → 1
 - · 00001111 → 15
 - · 00010000 → 16
 - · 00100001 → 33
 - · 111111111 → 255

Adding Two Integers



- From right to left, we add each pair of digits
- We write the sum, and add the carry to the next column



Binary Sums and Carries



a	b	Sum	a	b	Carry
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	0
1	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
XOR ("exclusive OR")			AND		

Modulo Arithmetic



- · Consider only numbers in a range
 - E.g., five-digit car odometer: 0, 1, ..., 99999
 - E.g., eight-bit numbers 0, 1, ..., 255
- Roll-over when you run out of space
 - E.g., car odometer goes from 99999 to 0, 1, ...
 - E.g., eight-bit number goes from 255 to 0, 1, ...
- Adding 2ⁿ doesn't change the answer
 - For eight-bit number, n=8 and 2ⁿ=256
 - E.g., (37 + 256) mod 256 is simply 37
- · This can help us do subtraction...
 - Suppose you want to compute a b
 - Note that this equals a + (256 -1 b) + 1

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One's and Two's Complement



- One's complement: flip every bit
 - E.g., b is 01000101 (i.e., 69 in decimal)
 - One's complement is 10111010
 - That's simply 255-69
- Subtracting from 11111111 is easy (no carry needed!)

- Two's complement
 - · Add 1 to the one's complement
 - E.g., (255 69) + 1 → 1011 1011

Putting it All Together



- · Computing "a b"
 - Same as "a + 256 b"
 - Same as "a + (255 b) + 1"
 - Same as "a + onesComplement(b) + 1"
 - Same as "a + twosComplement(b)"
- Example: 172 69
 - The original number 69: 0100 0101
 - One's complement of 69: 1011 1010
 - Two's complement of 69: 1011 1011
 - Add to the number 172: 1010 1100
 - The sum comes to: 0110 0111 1010
 - Equals: 103 in decimal

1010 1100

+1011 1011

10110 0111

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Signed Integers



- Sign-magnitude representation
- Use one bit to store the sign
 - Zero for positive number
 - · One for negative number
 - Examples
 - E.g., 0010 1100 → 44
 - E.g., 1010 1100 → -44
 - · Hard to do arithmetic this way, so it is rarely used
- Complement representation
 - · One's complement
 - · Flip every bit
 - E.g., 1101 0011 → -44
 - Two's complement
 - · Flip every bit, then add 1
 - E.g., 1101 0100 → -44

Overflow: Running Out of Room



- · Adding two large integers together
 - Sum might be too large to store in the number of bits available
 - · What happens?
- Unsigned integers
 - · All arithmetic is "modulo" arithmetic
 - · Sum would just wrap around
- Signed integers
 - · Can get nonsense values
 - · Example with 16-bit integers
 - Sum: 10000+20000+30000
 - Result: -5536

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Bitwise Operators: AND and OR



• Bitwise OR (I)

1 | 1 | 1

• Bitwise AND (&)

- · Mod on the cheap!
 - E.g., 53 % 16
 - ... is same as 53 & 15;

Bitwise Operators: Not and XOR



- One's complement (~)
 - Turns 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
 - E.g., set last three bits to 0
 - $x = x \& \sim 7$;
- XOR (^)
 - 0 if both bits are the same
 - · 1 if the two bits are different

Bitwise Operators: Shift Left/Right



- Shift left (<<): Multiply by powers of 2
 - · Shift some # of bits to the left, filling the blanks with 0

53 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 53<<2

- Shift right (>>): Divide by powers of 2
 - Shift some # of bits to the right
 - · For unsigned integer, fill in blanks with 0
 - · What about signed negative integers?
 - · Can vary from one machine to another!

0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

53>>2 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1

Example: Counting the 1's



- How many 1 bits in a number?
 - · E.g., how many 1 bits in the binary representation of 53?

0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

- · Four 1 bits
- · How to count them?
 - · Look at one bit at a time
 - · Check if that bit is a 1
 - · Increment counter
- · How to look at one bit at a time?
 - · Look at the last bit: n & 1
 - Check if it is a 1: (n & 1) == 1, or simply (n & 1)

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Counting the Number of '1' Bits



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(void) {
    unsigned int n;
    unsigned int count;
    printf("Number: ");
    if (scanf("%u", &n) != 1) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Error: Expect unsigned int.\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }
    for (count = 0; n > 0; n >>= 1)
        count += (n & 1);
    printf("Number of 1 bits: %u\n", count);
    return 0;
}
```

Summary



- Computer represents everything in binary
 - Integers, floating-point numbers, characters, addresses, ...
 - · Pixels, sounds, colors, etc.
- · Binary arithmetic through logic operations
 - Sum (XOR) and Carry (AND)
 - Two's complement for subtraction
- Bitwise operators
 - AND, OR, NOT, and XOR
 - · Shift left and shift right
 - · Useful for efficient and concise code, though sometimes cryptic

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The Main Event



The Design of C

Goals of C



Designers wanted C to support:

- Systems programming
 - · Development of Unix OS
 - · Development of Unix programming tools

But also:

- Applications programming
 - · Development of financial, scientific, etc. applications

Systems programming was the primary intended use

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The Goals of C (cont.)



The designers of wanted C to be:

- · Low-level
 - · Close to assembly/machine language
 - · Close to hardware

But also:

- Portable
 - · Yield systems software that is easy to port to differing hardware

The Goals of C (cont.)



The designers wanted C to be:

- · Easy for people to handle
 - · Easy to understand
 - Expressive
 - · High (functionality/sourceCodeSize) ratio

But also:

- Easy for **computers** to handle
 - · Easy/fast to compile
 - · Yield efficient machine language code

Commonality:

· Small/simple

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Design Decisions



In light of those goals...

- What design decisions did the designers of C have?
- · What design decisions did they make?

Consider programming language features, from simple to complex...

Feature 1: Data Types



- · Previously in this lecture:
 - · Bits can be combined into bytes
 - · Our interpretation of a collection of bytes gives it meaning
 - · A signed integer, an unsigned integer, a RGB color, etc.
- A data type is a well-defined interpretation of a collection of bytes
- A high-level programming language should provide primitive data types
 - · Facilitates abstraction
 - · Facilitates manipulation via associated well-defined operators
 - Enables compiler to check for mixed types, inappropriate use of types, etc.

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Primitive Data Types



- Issue: What primitive data types should C provide?
- Thought process
 - · C should handle:
 - · Integers
 - Characters
 - · Character strings
 - · Logical (alias Boolean) data
 - · Floating-point numbers
 - · C should be small/simple
- Decisions
 - Provide integer, character, and floating-point data types
 - **Do not** provide a character **string** data type (More on that later)
 - Do not provide a logical data type (More on that later)

Integer Data Types



- · Issue: What integer data types should C provide?
- Thought process
 - · For flexibility, should provide integer data types of various sizes
 - For portability at application level, should specify size of each data type
 - For portability at **systems** level, should define integral data types in terms of **natural word size** of computer •
 - · Primary use will be systems programming





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Integer Data Types (cont.)



- Decisions
 - Provide three integer data types: short, int, and long
 - · Do not specify sizes; instead:
 - int is natural word size
 - 2 <= bytes in short <= bytes in int <= bytes in long
- Incidentally, on hats using gcc217

Natural word size: 4 bytesshort: 2 bytesint: 4 byteslong: 4 bytes

Integer Constants



Was that a good

decision?

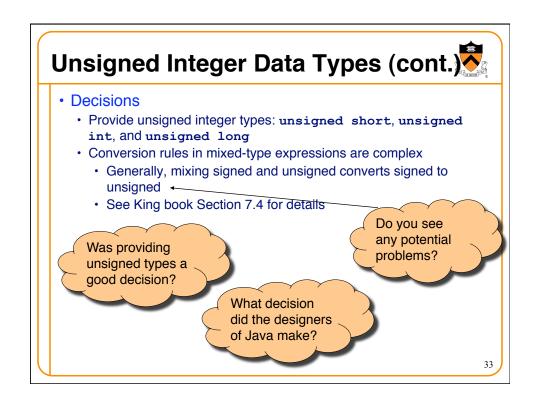
- Issue: How should C represent integer constants?
- Thought process
 - · People naturally use decimal
 - · Systems programmers often use binary, octal, hexadecimal
- Decisions
 - · Use decimal notation as default
 - Use "0" prefix to indicate octal notation
 - Use "0x" prefix to indicate hexadecimal notation
 - · Do not allow binary notation; too verbose, error prone
 - Use "L" suffix to indicate long constant
 - · Do not use a suffix to indicate short constant; instead must use cast
- Examples
 - int: 123, -123, 0173, 0x7B
 - long: 123L, -123L, 0173L, 0x7BL
 - short: (short) 123, (short) -123, (short) 0173, (short) 0x7B

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Unsigned Integer Data Types



- Issue: Should C have both signed and unsigned integer data types?
- Thought process
 - · Must represent positive and negative integers
 - Signed types are essential
 - · Unsigned data can be twice as large as signed data
 - · Unsigned data could be useful
 - · Unsigned data are good for bit-level operations
 - · Bit-level operations are common in systems programming
 - Implementing both signed and unsigned data types is complex
 - · Must define behavior when an expression involves both



Unsigned Integer Constants



- Issue: How should C represent unsigned integer constants?
- Thought process
 - "L" suffix distinguishes long from int; also could use a suffix to distinguish signed from unsigned
 - Octal or hexadecimal probably are used with bit-level operators
- Decisions
 - · Default is signed
 - · Use "U" suffix to indicate unsigned
 - Integers expressed in octal or hexadecimal automatically are unsigned
- Examples
 - unsigned int: 123U, 0173, 0x7B
 - unsigned long: 123UL, 0173L, 0x7BL
 - unsigned short: (short)123U, (short)0173, (short) $0x7B_{34}$

